

SYNTACTIC BEHAVIOUR OF NOUN IN MUNA LANGUAGE

Aderlaepe

Jurusan Pendidikan Bahasa dan Seni,
Program Studi Pendidikan Bahasa Inggris,
FKIP, Universitas Haluoleo Kendari Sulawesi Tenggara
Kampus Hijau Bumi Tridharma Anduonohu Kota Kendari,
Telepon/Faksimili 0401- 3190006
Ponsel 085338581391
alape@yahoo.com

ABSTRACT

This research is concerned with noun in Muna language with the main focus on syntactic aspects particularly its syntactic behaviour. The problem of the research is stated in the form of questions, as follows: (1) What are the kinds of language units function as modifiers of noun in Muna language? and (2) What syntactic functions can be filled by noun in Muna language? The objective of this research is determined based on the problem. Thereby, the objectives are: (1) To describe and explain the language units function as modifiers of noun in Muna language and (2) To describe and explain the syntactic functions which can be filled by noun in Muna language. The research is designed qualitatively, where the analysis is based on the language natural usage of Muna language by its speech community. Data were gathered by using several techniques, namely: (1) observation, (2) interview, (3) note taking, (4) elicitation, and (5) introspection. The obtained data were analyzed by employing certain techniques, they are: (1) permutation, (2) substitution, and (3) expansion. The results of the research are: noun in Muna language is not only modified by adjective, but also some other language units. Noun in Muna language is modified by: (1) adjective; (2) adverb: negative adverb soano 'not' and limitative adverb kaawu 'only'; (3) demonstratives aini 'this', aitu 'that', atatu 'that', amaitu 'that', awaghaitu 'that', and anagha 'that'; (5) possessive; and (6) quantitative: definite and indefinite quantitatives. Definite quantitative as noun modifier in Muna language appears in the form of cardinal number, whereas the indefinite one consists of two sub parts: variety quantitative sabhara 'various' and totality quantitative bhari-bharie 'all'. The other results of the research are: noun in Muna language syntactically can fill the functions of (1) subject of sentence, (2) predicate, (3) object which consists of direct and indirect objects, and (4) complement of sentence that consists of subjective and objective complements. This phenomenon proves the difference of syntactic behavior of noun in Muna and English languages where noun in English language can not fill in predicate.

Key Words: Muna language, syntactic behavior, noun, demonstrative, quantitative, and syntactic function.

ABSTRAK

Penelitian ini menyangkut penelusuran nomina bahasa Muna yang difokuskan pada tataran sintaksis khususnya perilaku sintaksisnya. Rumusan permasalahan dinyatakan dalam bentuk pertanyaan, sebagai berikut: (1) satuan lingual apa saja yang dapat berfungsi sebagai pewatas nomina bahasa Muna? (2) fungsi sintaksis apa saja yang dapat diisi oleh nomina bahasa Muna? Tujuan penelitian ditentukan berdasarkan permasalahan yang ada. Oleh karena itu, penelitian ini bertujuan untuk: (1) memerikan dan menjelaskan satuan-satuan lingual yang dapat berfungsi sebagai pewatas bahasa Muna, dan (2) memerikan dan menjelaskan fungsi sintaksis yang dapat diisi oleh nomina bahasa Muna. Penelitian ini didesain secara kualitatif, dengan mendasarkan analisis pada penggunaan bahasa Muna secara alamiah oleh komunitas penuturnya. Data penelitian ini dikumpulkan dengan menggunakan beberapa teknik, yaitu: (1) observasi, (2) wawancara, (3) catat, (4) elisitasi, dan (5) introspeksi. Data yang telah diperoleh dianalisis dengan menerapkan teknik tertentu, yakni: (1) permutasi, (2) substitusi, dan (3) ekspansi. Hasil penelitian ini adalah sebagai berikut: nomina dalam bahasa Muna tidak hanya diwatasi oleh ajektiva, tetapi juga satuan bahasa lain. Adapun satuan lingual yang dapat menjadi pewatas nomina bahasa Muna adalah: (1) ajektiva, (2) adverbia, yang terbagi atas adverbia negatif soano "bukan" dan adverbia limiatif kaawu "hanya"; (3) demonstratif aini "ini", atatu "itu", amaitu "itu", awaghaitu "itu", dan angha "itu"; (4) posesif; dan (5) kuantitatif yang terdiri atas kuantitatif tentu dan kuantitatif tak tentu. Kuantitatif tentu sebagai pewatas nomina dalam bahasa Muna muncul dalam bentuk numeral kardinal, sedangkan kuantitatif tak tentu terdiri atas kuantitatif variatif sabhara "bermacam-macam" dan kuantitatif totalitas bhari-bharie "semua".

Hasil lain dari penelitian ini adalah bahwa nomina dalam bahasa Muna dapat mengisi satuan fungsi sintaksis sebagai berikut: (1) subjek kalimat, (2) predikat, (3) objek yang terbagi atas objek langsung dan objek tak langsung, dan (4) komplemen yang terbagi ke dalam komplemen subjek dan komplemen objek. Hal ini membuktikan bahwa fungsi sintaksis nomina bahasa Muna dan bahasa Inggris sangat berbeda karena nomina bahasa Inggris tidak dapat menempati predikat.

Kata kunci : Muna language, syntactic behavior, noun, demonstrative, quantitative, dan syntactic function.

INTRODUCTION

As a foreign language, English is more difficult to be studied than Indonesian language. The real fact shows that the achievement of students in English is still low whether at high school or university level. English teachers have been trying to develop good teaching methodologies to make the students' achievement better. Also the materials of learning are always revised, but the results of English teaching in the class is not yet satisfied.

Teaching English as a foreign language should be compared with local languages. However, every language actually owns universal aspect besides the unique ones. The universal aspects of a language is the language elements which exist in all languages in the world, whereas the unique aspect is owned by certain

language that differ it from others. Thereby, the grammatical aspects of local languages is assumed can be used as a comparison device in studying English.

Muna language is the one besides various local languages exist in South East Sulawesi. It is used as a colloquial in daily interaction by Munanese people. The origin of Munanese people occupy the Muna island at southern part of South East Sulawesi. Muna language is also used as a medium of interaction in cultural activities. It functions as literary medium which is expressed through oral literature especially in the forms of folksong, tale, legend, myth, and aphorism. It is in accord with the existence and functions of local language as has been stated by Amran Halim (1976: 147), local language functions as (1) the symbol of ethnic prestige, (2) the symbol of ethnic identity, (3) the means of communication in family and social environment, and (4) the medium to support and to develop regional culture.

Muna language has several dialects. Rene van den Berg states that there are three dialects, they are Southern, Tiworo, and Standard dialects. South dialect is used at Southern part of Muna main island particularly at Gu and Mawasangka areas, also at Siompu and Kadatua islands. Tiworo dialect is used at Tiworo area which scopes Kambaara and surroundings, include Balu and Maginti small islands. The last one is Standard dialect, it is used at the widest areas, extent from the middle part, at the eastern, at the western, and at the northern parts of Muna island includes Tobeia and Renda islands (Berg, 1989: 6-7).

This research is not a comparative one, but the writer hopes that the results at least can be helpful to the students who learn English especially Munanese students both at high school level and university. The writer expects the results of the research make the students easily to understand English grammar particularly concerns syntactic aspects. Also the results of the research can be used by English teacher at Muna region to minimized the interference occurs to the students who have been learning English as a foreign language.

Problem of the research are: (1) what language units can modify noun in Muna language? (2) what syntactic functions can be filled by noun in Muna language? Certainly these two problems are close related to objectives of the research, they are: (1) to describe and explain the language units which can modify noun in Muna language, and (2) to describe and explain the syntactic functions of noun in Muna language.

The writer hopes the out put of the research can be useful as academic resource in teaching and learning English. Concretely, the contribution of the research results are: (1) to enrich the reference of local language subject in this case Muna language that is being studied at elementary school at Muna regency as local curriculum, (2) to be a worth resource to those who want to take a further research on certain aspects of Muna language grammar, and (3) to be a comparative material to English teachers who want to minimize the interference occurs to the students who learn English as foreign language, especially at Muna regency.

METHOD OF RESEARCH

This research is designed descriptive qualitatively. The attention in the discussion is focused on the elements of grammatical system of Muna language on syntactic level. The discussion and explanation of research elements which concerns the research questions are done according to the natural characteristics of data. The elements are the natural usages of Muna language in daily communication by its speech community specifically the grammatical system of syntactic behaviour of noun. Concretely, the elements scope the syntactic functions of noun and the language units which functions as the modifiers of noun in Muna language.

Data of the research were taken from Munanese society in natural usage of Muna language. The writer only took oral data corresponds to the techniques of data collection. In collecting data, the writer employed certain techniques, as follows: (1) observation: the aim of this technique is finding a number of fact and relevant information related to acquisition of data by participating and involving in speech community of the target language in this case Muna language. Concretely, through this technique the writer involved actively in cosial interaction in the form of dialogue and observed the relevant data, in this case the using of noun syntacticly. This technique certainly could be implemented because the writer him self is the native speaker of Muna language and the member of Munanese society; (2) interview: the writer also interviewed several informants corresponds to the using of noun in Muna language. The implementation of interview is carried out in the form of non formal situation and the writer submitted the question to the informants informally; (3) noting: the activity of noting in this research is done by making a note as the attempt to make a transcription of oral data. This technique is applied when the writer interviewed the informants and involved actively in the dialogue. However, the relevant data are frequently appear accidently in the activity of speaking or dialogue, also in interviewing. Therefore, the writer needs to

transcript the relevant data which are found in the field; (4) introspection: this technique is very important since the achieved data are perceived mistake. The thing that can be used as a standard is the writer's knowledge as the native speaker of Muna language. In this case, the writer can introspect all the achieved data concerning the validity of the data; and (5) elicitation: elicitation technique is used to check the validity of achieved data by asking the other native speakers, in this case other informants. This technique actually is similar to introspection. If in the introspection technique, the writer uses him self to check the validity of data which had been achieved, in the elicitation, the writer uses another native speakers (informants).

In analyzing the data, the writer also used certain techniques as follows: (1) substitution: substitution technique is done by changing the lingual units which are being analyzed by another units to know whether those lingual units are exist in the same or different group; (2) expansion: expansion technique is done by expanding the language units which are being analyzed with certain device. This technique is used to ensure that the analyzed data are included in the target of research scope; and (3) permutation: permutation technique is implemented by moving the position of being analyzed lingual unit to another position in a certain construction. This technique is based on the syntactic characteristics of word that can change the position from one to another syntagmatically.

DISCUSSION

Modifiers of Noun in Muna Language

Noun in Muna language can be modified by several language units, they are : (1) adjective, (2) adverb, (3) demonstrative pronoun, (4) possessive pronoun, (5) quantitative or number, and (6) article.

Adjective

The position of adjective as the modifier of noun in Muna language is behind or comes after the noun. Certainly this phenomenon is different from English since the position of adjective is in front of the noun or comes before the noun. As the modifier of noun, the function of the adjective in this case is to give the explanation about noun.

Examples:

- (1) *Kalambe pasole fofoguruno we SMA 1 bhaiku.*
girl beautiful teach who at SMA 1 friend my
"The beautiful girl who teaches at SMA 1 is my friend."
- (2) *Aegholi lambu morubu mahono daoa.*
1:S buy house small near 3:S market
"I bought a small house near the market."

The three examples above can be seen transparently that in sentence (1), *kalambe* 'girl' is modified by *pasole* 'beautiful'; and the in sentence (2), noun *lambu* 'house' is modified by *morubu* 'small'. The positions of *pasole* and *morubu* are behind or after the nouns. In the phrases of *kalambe pasole* 'beautiful girl' and *lambu morubu* 'small house', the heads (H) are *kalambe* 'girl' and *lambu* 'house'.

Adverb

The kinds of adverb which functions as the modifiers of noun in Muna language are negative and limitative adverbs.

Negative Adverb

Negative adverb in Muna language is *soano* 'not', it is used to negate the noun. It means that the function of modifier is to state the negation. Therefore it is called negative adverb. The position of *soano* 'not' as noun modifier is in front of or before the noun. Pay attention to the examples:

- (3) *Aini soano lambu taaka o waru.*
this not house but Art. shop
"This is not a house but a shop."
- (4) *Amaku soano dotoro taaka o mantiri.*
Father my not doctor but Art. medical staff
"My father is not a doctor, but a medical staff."

In the two sentences above, nouns are modified by *soano* ‘not’ as negative adverb. The position of *soano* as a modifier is in front of noun as the head. In sentence (3), negative adverb *soano* ‘not’ modifies *lambu* ‘house’ and in sentence (4) *soano* modifies *dotoro* ‘doctor’.

Limitative Adverb

Limitative adverb in Muna language is *kaawu* ‘only’, it is the kind of noun modifier which states the limitation or restriction of the object we speak about, in this case the noun. The position of *kaawu* ‘only’ is behind or after the noun. It is certainly different from the position of negative adverb *soano* ‘not’. Examples:

- (5) *Nefumaano gholeo segholeo o roti kaawu.*
 3:S eat that day one day Art. bread only
 “The food he/she eats in a day is bread only.”

- (6) *Morano kahanda indewi inodi kaawu.*
 see who ghost yesterday I only
 “It was only me who saw the ghost yesterday.”

The position of *kaawu* ‘only’ in both sentences above is after the noun or behind the noun. In sentence (5), limitative adverb of *kaawu* functions to modify *o roti* ‘bread’. Semantically this sentence means bread is the only food for him to eat every day. The same phenomenon occurs in sentence (6), where *kaawu* functions to modify *inodi* ‘me’. In this case, *kaawu* restricts the person that the other did not see the ghost.

Demonstrative Pronoun

Demonstrative pronoun functions to point out the object what we speak about. The referring object we aim can be close to, rather far, or more over it is far away from the speaker. In Muna language, demonstrative pronoun is divided into: (a) *aini* ‘this’, (b) *aitu* ‘that’, (c) *amaitu* ‘that’, (d) *atatu* ‘that’, (e) *awaghaitu* ‘that’, and (f) *anagha/nagha* ‘that’.

Demonstrative *aini* ‘this’

Demonstrative *aini* ‘this’ is used to point out a certain object which its position is close to the speaker or the speaker touches it. The distance of the object from the listener can be near or far. It means the position of the object is viewed from the speaker, not from the listener. Examples:

- (7) *Anahi aini fokoanauku.*
 child this nephew my
 “This child is my nephew.”

- (8) *Galu aini pada nogholie amaku.*
 garden this already 3:S buy 3:S father my
 “This garden had been bought by my father.”

The position of *aini* ‘this’ in both sentences above is behind the noun. This kind of demonstrative functions to modify the noun. Accordingly, *aini* in sentence (7) modifies *anahi* ‘child’ and in sentence (8) modifies *galu* ‘garden’.

The position of demonstrative *aini* ‘this’ can also in front of noun or comes before noun. Pay attention to the examples below:

- (9) *Aini lambu kaelatehamani.*
 This house live place our
 “This is the house we live.”

- (10) *Aini anahi meghawano beasiswa*
 This child get who scholarship
 “This is the child who gets the scholarship”

Demonstrative *aitu* ‘that’

Aitu ‘that’ is a kind of demonstrative used to point out a certain object which its position is rather far from the speaker, but the distance of the object from the listener can be near or far. If the object is far from the listener, it must be still transparently. It means both of speaker and listener still can visualize (can see) the object. Examples:

- (11) *Karambau aitu noasoe pisaku.*
 buffalo that 3:S sell cousin my
 “That buffalo was sold by my cousin.”

- (12) *Moghane aitu nopongko bhaino.*
 man that 3:S kill friend his
 “ That man killed his friend ”

Demonstrative *amaitu* ‘that’

Amaitu ‘that’ is used to point out a certain object which the distance is rather far from the speaker and the listener, but they still can see the object. The position of *amaitu* in the sentence is behind the noun or comes after noun. Examples:

- (13) *Kabhongka amaitu nondo dorabue.*
 road that still 3:P make
 “ That road is still being made. ”
- (14) *Kapala amaitu naghumulu te Wolio*
 ship that 3:S toward will to Wolio
 “ That ship will sail to Wolio ”

By paying attention to the examples above, it can be seen transparently that the position of *amaitu* ‘that’ is after the noun or behind the noun.

Demonstrative *atatu* ‘that’

Atatu ‘that’ is a kind of demonstrative that used to point out a certain object which its distance is far away from the speaker and the listener, but both of them still can see the object. The position of *atatu* ‘that’ in the sentence is also behind the noun or comes after noun.

Examples:

- (15) *Kabhawo atatu nokositani*
 Mountain that 3:S has devil
 “ That mountain is occupied by devil ”
- (16) *Buea atatu nofuma mie*
 Crocodile that 3:S eat man
 “ That crocodile eats people ”

Demonstrative *atatu* in both sentences above is the modifier of noun. In sentence (15), *atatu* ‘that’ functions to modifies *kabhawo* ‘mountain’, meanwhile in the sentence (16) functions to modifies *buea* ‘crocodile’.

Demonstrative *awaghaitu* ‘that’

Demonstrative *awaghaitu* ‘that’ in Muna language is used to point out a certain object which its position is very far from the speaker and the listener. Both of them can not see the object. The object is only visualized by the experience. It means both speaker and listener have seen the object and recognize it well. Examples:

- (17) *Kamokula awaghaitu o bhisa.*
 Old people that Art. lunatic
 “ That old man/woman is a lunatic. ”
- (18) *Mie awaghaitu kapala sikolaku we SD.*
 Man that head school my at SD
 “ That man is my head master in Elementary School. ”

By paying attention to the examples above, it can be found that the position of demonstrative *awaghaitu* ‘that’ is after the noun or behind the noun. *Awaghaitu* in sentence (17) functions to modify *kamokula* ‘old man/woman’ and in sentence (18) modifies *mie* ‘man’. *Kamokula awaghaitu* ‘that man’ in sentence (17) describes the man is not seen by the speaker and the listener in the time of speaking, but both of them recognize him since they ever seen him before.

Demonstrative *naghalanagha* ‘that’

Demonstrative *anagha* ‘that’ is used to point out a certain object which its position is not certain. Both the speaker and the listener only imagine the object. The object can not be visualized for unreal form. The speaker and listener may never see the object.

Examples:

- (19) *O surugaa nagha netaa sepalih.*
 Art. heaven that 3:S pleasure very much
 “ (in) The heaven is pleasure very much. “

- (20) *Malaikati anagha nofodhagani.*
 angel that 3:S us take care
 “ That angel takes care us. “

The using of *anagha* ‘that’ in sentence (19) is aimed to point out the unreal object of *surugaa* ‘heaven’, and in sentence (20) also to point out the unreal object of *malaikati* ‘angel’. The using of *nagha* ‘that’ obliges the presence of article *o*, contrarily the article *o* can not present in the form of *anagha* ‘that’.

Possessive

Possessive as modifier in Muna language exist in the suffix forms since its construction attaches or combines to the end of noun. After possessive suffix present to noun constituent, the new derived one consists of two elements, head and modifier. The head is noun and modifier is possessive suffix. The possessive forms correspond to personal pronoun, so it is also called possessive pronoun. Every form of personal pronoun has a certain form of possessive. The relationship between personal pronoun and possessive can be seen in the table bellow:

Person	Pronoun	Possessive
First Singular	Inodi	-ku
First Plural Dualist	Intaidi	-nto
First Plural Inclusive	Intaidiimu	-ntoomu
First Plural Exclusive	Insaiddi	-mani
Second Singular	Ihintu	-mu
Second Plural	Ihintuumu	-umu
Third Singular	Anoa	-no
Third Plural	Andoa	-ndo

The position of possessive is behind or after the noun since it attaches to the end of noun. Possessive *-ku* refers to *inodi* ‘I’ as the first singular person; possessive *-nto* refers to *intaidi* ‘we’ as the first dualist person; *-ntoomu* refers to *intaidiimu* ‘we’ as the first plural inclusive; *-mani* refers to *insaidi* ‘we’ as the first plural exclusive; *-mu* refers to *ihintu* ‘you’ as the second singular person; *-umu* refers to *ihintuumu* ‘you’ as the second plural person; *-no* refers to *anoa* ‘he/she’ as the third singular person; and *-ndo* refers to *andoa* ‘they’ as the third plural person.

These possessives function in giving the explanation about noun which they attach to. Accordingly, these possessives are noun modifiers. Pay attention to these examples:

- (21) *Patuju-nto nopandehaanemo kaew.a*
 aim our 3:S know already rival
 “ Our aim has been known by the rival. ”

- (22) *Laa -ntoomu ingka nokelemo.*
 River our in fact 3:S dry already
 “ Our river has been really dried. “

- (23) *Kampo-mani nofopindae pomarinta.*
 Village our 3:S move 3:S government
 “ Our village is moved by the government. “

- (24) *Noafa oasogho kahitela-mu ?*
 Why 2:S sell corn your
 “ Why did you sell your corn ? “

- (25) *Nehamai gara lambu-umu ?*
 Where really house your
 “ Where is actually your house? “

- (26) *Wa Ani atatue lambu-no.*
 Wa Ani that house her
 “ That is Wa Ani’s house. “

- (27) *Owae nehamai boku-ndo muri?*
 2:S bring where book their pupil
 “Where did you bring the pupil’s books?”

Quantitative

Quantitative or number is a modifier of noun in Muna language which states the quantity or number of noun. There are two kinds of quantitative, namely definite and indefinite quantitatives.

Definite Quantitative

The sum of noun that is modified by definite quantitative has been recognized. In this case both the speaker and the listener know how many the noun since the number of noun has been determined quantitatively.

The position of quantitative as noun modifier is in front of the noun, or comes before the noun. Pay attention to the examples:

- (28) *Rua ghonu otono taaka nando neada tora otono kantori.*
 two number car his but still 3:S borrow again car his office
 “He has got two cars but he still borrows the office’s one.”
- (29) *Tolu partai neakuiku*
 three party 3:S recognize 1:S
 “There are three political parties which I recognize”

Rua ‘two’ in sentence (28) and *tolu* ‘three’ in the sentence (29) are definite quantitatives or definite numbers and they are used to modify the noun after them. *Rua* ‘two’ modifies *otono* ‘his car’ and *tolu* ‘three’ modifies *partai* ‘political party’.

Indefinite Quantitative

Indefinite quantitative is the opposite of definite one. It is undecided number of quantity, and can not answer the question how many. In Muna language, indefinite quantitative semantically states ‘the variety’ and ‘the totality’. Thereby, the indefinite quantitative consists of variety and totality quantitatives.

Variety Quantitative

Variety quantitative in Muna language is *sabhara* ‘various’. As the modifier of noun, the constituent of *sabhara* functions to modify noun. It explains the noun concerning the diversity. Its position is before or in front of noun. Pay attention to the examples:

- (30) *Sabhara liwu padamo nokalahie.*
 Various country already 3:S visit 3:S
 “He has visited various countries.”
- (31) *Welo dhunia ini sabhara kadadi naandoo.*
 In world this various animal exist
 “In this world there are various animals.”

the words *sabhara* ‘various’ in sentence (30) functions to modify *liwu* ‘country’ where in the sentence (31) modifies *dhunia* ‘world’.

Totality Quantitative

Totality quantitative in Muna language is *bhari-bharie* ‘all’. It is one of noun modifier which states the number of noun simultaneously. Its place is also in front of noun. Examples:

- (32) *Bhari-bharie liwu kakalahano sadhia doasiane.*
 all country go place 3:S always 3:P like 3:S
 “All country he visits, the people always like him.”
- (33) *Bhari-bharie kaago nokapihie*
 all medicine 3:S look for
 “All kinds of medicines he look for”

The indefinite quantitative *bhari-bharie* ‘all’ in sentence (32) above functions to give explanation about noun *liwu* ‘country’ such as *bhari-bharie* in sentence (33) functions to give explanation or information about noun *kaago* ‘medicine’. Thereby, *bhari-bahrie* in both sentences are noun modifiers.

Article

Noun in Muna language is also modified by article. The existence of article as noun modifier in Muna language can be categorized as a unique aspect of Muna language since we can not find in Indonesian language or in many local languages in Indonesia.

The article in Muna language is *o*. This kind of article always presents in front of noun or comes before noun. Examples:

- (34) *O bensi ampaitu nohalimo.*
 Art. premium nowadays 3:S expensive
 “The premium nowadays is expensive.”

- (35) *O kahitela we dao a rua riwu sekilo.*
 Art. corn at market two thousand one kg
 “The corn at the market costs two thousands rupia each kg.”

Syntactic Function of Noun in Muna Language

Subject of Sentence

According to Verhaar (1999: 166), subject of sentence is an argument exists in the situation which explained by verb/predicate, or has the experiences to the certain thing, or does the activity which is stated by the verb/predicate (Verhaar, 1999: 166).

- (36) *O Pomarinta naefofoni gaji taghu tee wise.*
 Art. government 3:S will increase salary year at face
 “The government will increase the salary next year.”

O Pomarinta ‘the government’ in sentence (36) is the subject of the sentence since it carries out the activity which is explained by the predicate *naefofoni* ‘will increase’. On the other hand, the subject of sentence (37) below exists in the situation that is stated by verb or the predicate of sentence.

- (37) *Anahimoelu amaitu nosaki molea.*
 child orphan that 3:S ill painful
 “That orphan is seriously ill.”

Anahimoelu ‘orphan’ in the sentence (37) above syntactically functions as the subject of sentence because it exists in the situation which is stated by predicate *nosaki molea* ‘seriously ill’.

Predicate of Sentence

Alwi (2000: 326) states that a predicate of sentence is the main constituent of a sentence/clause which presents syntactically with subject constituent in the left; object and complement constituents in the right. The presence of subject constituent in the left to accompany the predicate is absolutely or obligatory. It means the requirement of a sentence is the presence of predicate and subject constituents. On the other hand, object and complement constituents are not the absolute elements of a sentence. They can either present or not in the sentence. Therefore, the presence of object and complement in the sentence is optional. Pay attention to the examples below:

- (38) *Kalambe awaghaitu guruno wamba Inggirisi te SMP Kontunaga.*
 girl that teacher language English at SMP Kontunaga
 “That girl is an English teacher at SMP Kontunaga.”

The phrase of *guruno wamba Inggirisi* ‘an English teacher’ in the sentence (38) above syntactically functions as the predicate of sentence since its position is at the right side of subject *kalambe awaghaitu* ‘that girl’.

Object of Sentence

Object of sentence is the element of a sentence which gets or receives the action/activity which stated by verb or predicate (Verhaar, 1999: 166). Pay attention to the sentence (39) below:

- (39) *Insaidi taegholi galu indewi.*

we 1:P buy garden yesterday
 “ We bought a new garden yesterday. “

The constituent of *galu* ‘garden’ in the sentence (39) above syntactically functions as the object of sentence since it gets or receives the action of predicate *taegholi* ‘bought’.

Object can be divided into two kinds, direct and indirect objects. Direct object is a kind of object gets or receives the action or activity done by the subject directly, whereas indirect object gets or receives the activity or action from the subject indirectly (Frank, 1972: 9). The sentence with indirect object must use two valencies verb. This case can be understood since the presence of indirect object must be accompanied by the direct one.

(40) *Amaku nerabu kaghati..*
 father my 3:S make kite
 “ My father makes a kite.”

(41) *Amaku neburu sura so La Ehe .*
 Father my 3:S write letter for La Ehe
 “ My father wrote a letter for La Ehe. “

The sentences (40) above only has a direct objects because the verbs in predicate constituents are one valency. The verb *nerabu* ‘makes’ is one valency, it does not require the presence of second object (indirect object). It is different from sentences (41) because there are direct and indirect objects. The possibility of using indirect objects in these sentences is the using of two valencies verbs in the predicate constituents. Verbs *neburu* ‘write’ is two valencies. Accordingly, the objects of sentences must be two, direct object *sura* ‘letter’ and indirect one *La Ehe*. *Sura* ‘letter’ is categorized as direct object because it directly receives or gets the activity of *neburu* ‘write’ done by *amaku* ‘my father’. On the other hand, *La Ehe* is called as indirect object because it indirectly receives the activity of *neburu* ‘write’ which is done by the subject *amaku* ‘my father’.

Complement of Sentence

Complement of sentence is the sentence element which completes the subject or object (Frank, 1972: 9). In this case, the complement of a sentence gives the information or explanation about subject or object. Thereby, there are two kinds of complement, subjective and objective complements. Corresponds to this definition, subjective complement gives the information or explanation about the subject, whereas the objective complement gives the explanation or information about the object of sentence. Look at the examples below:

(42). *Nekapihino o doi.*
 3:S look for Art. money
 “What he look for is money.”

(43) *Insaidi tapili Pak Amir membalino kapala desa .*
 we 1:P chose Sir Amir become who head village
 “ We chose Mr. Amir as the head of village .“

O doi ‘money’ in sentence (42) above refers to the subject *nekapihino* ‘what he wants’. *O doi* ‘money’ in the sentence functions to give the information or explanation about the subject *nekapihino*. So, *o doi* ‘money’ syntactically functions as subjective complement. On the other hand, *kapala desa* ‘the head of village’ in the sentence (43) refers to the object of the sentence, *Pak Amir* ‘Mr. Amir’. Semantically the word *kapala desa* gives explanation/information about *Pak Amir*. Thereby, *kapala desa* ‘the head of village in the sentence (43) above syntactically functions as the objective complement.

CONCLUSION

Noun in Muna language is modified by (1) adjective, (2) adverb, (3) demonstrative, (4) possessive, (5) quantitative/number, and (article). Adjective as noun modifier, it comes after noun or its position is behind the noun; Adverb consist of Negative Adverb *soano* ‘not’ comes before noun and Limitative Adverb *kaawu* ‘only’ that also comes after noun; Demonstrative consist of *aini* ‘this’ , *aitu* ‘that’ , *atatu* ‘that’, *amaitu* ‘that’, *awaghaitu* ‘that’, and *anagha* ‘that’ which their places are after the noun; Possessive exists in the forms of suffixes, where each of them refers to personal pronoun; and quantitative/number consist of definite quantitative and indefinite quantitative. Definite quantitative is the cardinal number whereas

indefinite quantitative consist of variety quantitative *sabhara* ‘various’ and totality quantitative *bhari-bharie* ‘all’. The places of all the quantitatives are before the noun.

Syntactic functions can be filled by noun in Muna language are: (1) subject, (2) predicate, (3) object (direct and indirect objects), and (4) complement of sentence (subjective and objective complements). However, noun in English language can not fill the constituent of predicate at all, but noun in Muna language can fill the predicate of sentence.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Alwi, Hasan et al. 2000. *Tata Bahasa Baku Bahasa Indonesia Edisi Ketiga*. Jakarta: Balai Pustaka.
- Berg, Rene Van den. 1989. *A Grammar of the Muna Language*. Leiden: Summer Institute of Linguistics.
- Frank, Marcella. 1972. *Modern English*. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall Inc.
- Halim, Amran. 1976. *Politik Bahasa Nasional*. Jakarta: Pusat Pembinaan dan Pengembangan Bahasa
- Kridalaksana, Harimurti. 1985. *Tata Bahasa Deskriptif Bahasa Indonesia*. Jakarta: Pusat Pembinaan dan Pengembangan Bahasa.
- Lyons, John. 1977. *Semantics Vol. 1 & Vol. 2*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Mc Manis, C. et al. 1988. *Language File*. Ohio: The Ohio State University.
- Moeliono, Anton M. 1988. *Tata Bahasa Baku Bahasa Indonesia*. Jakarta: Pusat Pembinaan dan Pengembangan Bahasa.
- Muchtar, Muziza. 1993. *Nominalisasi dalam Bahasa Melayu Langkat: Satu Kajian Struktur dan Semantis*. Unpublished Thesis. Padang: Fakultas Pascasarjana Universitas Andalas.
- Quirk, Randolph. 1989. *A Grammar of Contemporary English*. London: Longman Group Ltd.
- Robins, R.H. 1967. *Sejarah Singkat Linguistik*. Terjemahan Asril Mardjohan. Bandung: Penerbit ITB.
- Sanusi, A. Effendi, et al. 1998. *Nomina dan Adjectiva Bahasa Lampung Dialek Abung*. Jakarta: Pusat Pembinaan dan Pengembangan Bahasa.
- Sudaryanto. 1991. *Tata Bahasa Baku Bahasa Jawa*. Yogyakarta: Duta Wacana Press.
- Tarigan, Henri Guntur. 1985. *Pengajaran Morfologi*. Bandung: Penerbit Angkasa
- Verhaar, J.W.M. 1999. *Asas-Asas Linguistik Umum*. Yogyakarta: Gadjah Mada University Press.
- Yatim, Nurdin. 1992. *Morfologi Kata Kerja Bahasa Muna*. Jakarta: Pusat Pembinaan dan Pengembangan Bahasa.